



King's Research Portal

DOI:

[10.1016/S2215-0366\(18\)30085-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(18)30085-3)

Document Version

Peer reviewed version

[Link to publication record in King's Research Portal](#)

Citation for published version (APA):

Galbally, M., Bergink, V., Vigod, S. N., Buist, A., Boyce, P., Chandra, P., Kohan, R., & Howard, L. M. (2018). Is Breast Always Best? Breastfeeding and Lithium. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 5(7), 534-536.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366\(18\)30085-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(18)30085-3)

Citing this paper

Please note that where the full-text provided on King's Research Portal is the Author Accepted Manuscript or Post-Print version this may differ from the final Published version. If citing, it is advised that you check and use the publisher's definitive version for pagination, volume/issue, and date of publication details. And where the final published version is provided on the Research Portal, if citing you are again advised to check the publisher's website for any subsequent corrections.

General rights

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the Research Portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognize and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

- Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the Research Portal for the purpose of private study or research.
- You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
- You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the Research Portal

Take down policy

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact librarypure@kcl.ac.uk providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

Title: Is Breast Always Best? Breastfeeding and Lithium

Galbally Megan, PhD ^{1,2,3}

Bergink, Veerle, PhD ^{4,5}

Vigod, Simone N, MD ⁶

Buist Anne, MD⁷

Boyce, Philip, MD⁸

Chandra, Prabha, FRCPsych⁹

Kohan, Rolland FRACP³

Howard, Louise M, MRCPsych¹⁰

1. School of Psychology & Exercise Science
Murdoch University, Murdoch, WA, Australia

2. School of Medicine
University of Notre Dame, Fremantle, WA, Australia

3. King Edward Memorial Hospital, Subiaco, WA, Australia

4. Department of Psychiatry and Department of Obstetrics, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, USA.

5. Department of Psychiatry, Erasmus Medical Centre, Rotterdam, The Netherlands

6. Women's College Hospital and Research Institute, Department of Psychiatry, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada

7. Department of Psychiatry, University of Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

8. Discipline of Psychiatry, Westmead Clinical School, Sydney Medical School, University of Sydney, NSW, Australia

9. National Institute of Mental Health and Neurosciences, Bangalore, India

10. Health Service and Population Research Department, Institute of Psychiatry, King's College, London, U.K

Corresponding Author

Professor Megan Galbally

Email m.galbally@murdoch.edu.au

KEYWORDS: Lithium, Breastfeeding, Bipolar

Breastfeeding confers clear public health benefits to mother and infant¹. Over the past 20 years, the fertility of women with severe mental disorders including bipolar disorder and schizophrenia has increased^{2,3}. This warrants attention to the clinical question of how to weigh the benefits versus risks of breastfeeding in this population.

The early postpartum period is a time of significant risk of relapse for women with severe mental disorders². Such relapse is associated with considerable distress for women, and can result in separation from their infant for hospital admission and the potential removal of the infant from maternal care. To reduce the risk of relapse, a comprehensive relapse prevention plan that includes prophylactic medication, minimising sleep deprivation, reduction in stimulation and psychosocial support is encouraged and such a plan might be incompatible with breastfeeding^{4,5}.

Lithium carbonate is an effective and preferred treatment for acute mania and longer term for relapse prevention for both mania and depression^{4,6}. There is also growing evidence of its efficacy for prevention and treatment of postpartum psychosis⁴. Lithium is a renally excreted agent with a narrow therapeutic range (0.6-0.8 mmol/l). Levels associated with serious toxicity are only slightly higher than the therapeutic range⁶. Lithium is also associated with a range of neurological, cardiovascular, renal and endocrine side effects with some side effects such as, tremor and thyroid abnormalities occurring within the therapeutic range. As lithium does pass into the breast milk, many experts, and international guidelines, agree that the risks of infant lithium exposure outweigh the benefits of breastfeeding⁷. However, in our collective experience across 4 continents women (and prescribers) are increasingly expressing a desire to breastfeed on lithium. As such, a careful consideration of the risks and benefits of breastfeeding in the setting of maternal lithium treatment is required.

The key factors are the amount of exposure and the implications any exposure may have for infant health outcomes. Most authorities regard a relative infant dose of less than 10% as safe in terms of exposure levels, although this does not fully reassure if there is any potential for small exposures for a particular agent to cause harm. Infant lithium levels range from 30-40% of maternal levels, with relative infant dose ranges of 12-30%,^{5,8} although findings vary greatly between studies⁹. In the short-term, this may present some risks. An infant's capacity to clear agents through renal excretion is more limited than an adult. Fluid balance in infants can be easily influenced by climate,

infection, exclusive breastfeeding and other factors, making dehydration more likely in young babies. In turn, this increases the risk that infant serum lithium may reach toxic levels.

Only 36 cases of lithium exposure in breastfeeding have been reported in the scientific literature so knowledge of the range of risks and even levels of exposure is poor^{9,10}. Within these reports there is both a case report of hypotonia (that resolved)¹¹ and a case series of 10 infants which reported that 4 of 10 infants had either an abnormality on thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH) (a major concern as the long term consequences of hypothyroidism on cognitive and neurodevelopment are well recognised) or changes in blood urea nitrogen (BUN) or creatinine indices¹². The risk of effects on thyroid, renal and lithium toxicity can be monitored through regular blood tests but paediatric phlebotomy can be traumatic for parents and infants. Furthermore, the infant identified with high TSH and the infant with high BUN had infant lithium serum levels of 0.23¹² and 0.10¹² respectively, indicating abnormalities despite low lithium levels. While there are short term reports on outcomes for these infants, the longer-term significance of exposure or associated abnormalities is unclear^{9,10}.

In low and middle-income countries (LAMI) decision-making may be even more complicated. The combination of prohibitive costs of formula feeds, high rates of infant morbidity and mortality due to infections (especially diarrhoeal diseases), inadequate hygiene practices related to bottle feeds, lack of community based psychiatry teams for follow up, and long distances from health care may put infants at risk if breastfeeding is discouraged. However, frequent monitoring of lithium levels and renal function in the infant would be impossible and the likelihood of risk of lithium toxicity to the infant in case of dehydration and diarrhoea very high. Therefore, on balance if a woman has to be on lithium, in low resource situations, breastfeeding may not be a viable option.

For preterm babies, the concerns about not offering breast milk also include neonatal necrotising enterocolitis, with the risk 20 times higher in formula fed babies than those fed with breastmilk¹. However, this needs to be balanced with exposure to an agent with unknown longer-term effects in a neonate far more vulnerable to environmental exposure than a neonate born at term. Breast milk banks, if available, could be a clinical option.

Women who require lithium treatment in the postpartum do so because of the severity of their illness. Ideally any change in maintenance medication because of a

desire to breastfeed would be tried pre-conception, rather than during the perinatal period at a time of increased vulnerability. As part of any care in the perinatal period, clinicians and women carefully consider options around treatments, and individual choices should be supported. For many women, remaining on an effective and proven treatment gives them the best chance for developing a strong and healthy mother-infant relationship with confidence and capacity as a parent.

While the best start to life includes good quality nutrition, such as breast milk, of equal or potentially greater benefit is a healthy relationship with a mentally well primary caregiver. We believe that it is important to focus on ways to support women who require lithium to feel confident and positive about parenting their baby, and experience the closeness of the mother-infant bond without needing to breastfeed. At this point in our understanding of lithium and breastfeeding, there appears to be the potential to do harm. With our understanding of the importance of early development for determining lifelong health and wellbeing, is this risk worth taking?

We declare no competing interests. MG has received speaking fees from Lundbeck, PB has received fees from Servier, Lundbeck, Eli Lilly and Astra Zeneca. AB has received speaking fees from Lundbeck. No funding body was involved in the development or editing of this Comment.

References

1. Grummer-Strawn LM. Surgeon General's Call to Action to Support Breastfeeding: Significant Actions in the First Year. *Breastfeeding Medicine* 2012; **7**(5): 332-3.
2. Jones I, Chandra PS, Dazzan P, Howard LM. Bipolar disorder, affective psychosis, and schizophrenia in pregnancy and the post-partum period. *Lancet* 2014; **384**(9956): 1789-99.
3. Vigod SN, Seeman MV, Ray JG, et al. Temporal trends in general and age-specific fertility rates among women with schizophrenia (1996-2009): a population-based study in Ontario, Canada. *Schizophr Res* 2012; **139**(1-3): 169-75.
4. Bergink V, Burgerhout KM, Koorengevel KM, et al. Treatment of psychosis and mania in the postpartum period. *Am J Psychiatry* 2015; **172**(2): 115-23.
5. Galbally M, Snellen M, Walker S, Permezel M. Management of antipsychotic and mood stabilizer medication in pregnancy: recommendations for antenatal care. *Aust N Z J Psychiatry* 2010; **44**(2): 99-108.
6. Stahl SM. Essential psychopharmacology: the prescriber's guide: Cambridge Univ Pr; 2005.
7. McAllister-Williams RH, Baldwin DS, Cantwell R, et al. British Association for Psychopharmacology consensus guidance on the use of psychotropic medication

preconception, in pregnancy and postpartum 2017. *J Psychopharmacol* 2017; **31**(5): 519-52.

8. Hale T, Rowe H. Medications & Mothers' Milk 2014: A Manual of Lactational Pharmacology (Medications and Mother's Milk). Plano TX. USA: Hale Publishing; 2014.

9. Uguz F, Sharma V. Mood stabilizers during breastfeeding: a systematic review of the recent literature. *Bipolar disorders* 2016; **18**(4): 325-33.

10. Pacchiarotti I, León-Caballero J, Murru A, et al. Mood stabilizers and antipsychotics during breastfeeding: Focus on bipolar disorder. *European Neuropsychopharmacology* 2016; **26**(10): 1562-78.

11. Bogen DL, Sit D, Genovese A, Wisner KL. Three cases of lithium exposure and exclusive breastfeeding. *Arch Womens Ment Health* 2012; **15**(1): 69-72.

12. Viguera AC, Newport DJ, Ritchie J, et al. Lithium in breast milk and nursing infants: clinical implications. *American Journal of Psychiatry* 2007; **164**(2): 342-5.